



CONTENTS	PAGE
Madame Montessori By Sri T. G. N. Iyengar, B.Sc., Mysore. ...	61
Higher Education in U. S. A. ...	62
Social Adult Education Through Service Leagues By Sri S. Jagannadhan, Teachers' College, Saidapet, (Retd.) ...	72
The Discipline in our Educational Institutions By Sri M. B. Narasimha Iyengar, M. Sc., Bangalore ...	75
Mining Education at Queensland ...	76
The XLIII Madras State Educational Conference ...	77
Editorial ...	78

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Madame Montessori

BY SRI T. G. N. IYENGAR, B.Sc., *Mysore.*

IT was only last year, on May 6th, that the world lost a great educationist in Dr. Maria Montessori. She was nearly 82 years, when she passed away in a village (Noorvidsak) in Holland. She was born in a village by name Charevila in Italy in the year 1870. She was intellectually strong and brilliant from her younger days. She took an active part during a period of political changes in Italy, and she was the first lady to take the Doctor's degree. As a doctor, she rendered great service to the women's world and also fought for the rights of women. She was a representative in the women's world organisation many a time.

It was in 1900, that Dr. Maria Montessori came into close contact with feeble-minded children, and she felt that they needed more education than medical treatment. Therefore she founded a school for defectives. The study of psychology (which is called the handmaid of education) and social anthropology helped her for the concrete observation of child development. In Rome, she started a Kindergarten school, and her aim was to see that it was a model centre for training teachers. The Montessori method is an example of play-way in education, which was advocated by Coldwell Cook. It is now employed all over the world, and her book regarding her system has been translated into 15 languages.

It has been said that the death-knell of class teaching has been rung and that the lady who tolled the bell is considered to be Madame Montessori. Her system is the extreme example of individual instruction, and it is advocated that a directress should be responsible for only 45 pupils. Sense-training is most emphasised in the Montessori system. Everything is auto-education; silence and discipline are self-imposed and self-learned. So, it is stressed that sense-education should be auto-education. In this way, Madame Montessori opened the eyes of the educational world.

The three corner-stones of her system are the development of personality sense-training and freedom. She invented a didactic apparatus for sense-training, and emphasis was laid on physical training through exercises.

In 1913, she opened an International Teachers' Training College, just to spread her methods of teaching. This system was approved all over the world, and as a result, 40 such training colleges were opened. During the first world war (1914—1918), she was in America, where she trained teachers to suit her system of teaching. In 1923, she was respected much in Italy, but this honour did not last long. So, she closed her schools in Italy, and then went to Spain, then to England. Further she

visited China and Africa. Everywhere, she spread her way of education

During the second world war Madame Montessori stayed in India, and here also she trained a number of teachers in her system. India is really fortunate to derive inspiration from the Montessori system. In the year 1946, she returned to her native land

The Montessori system gives a new method of teaching, and this is applicable to children between 3 and 6 years, and it helps in the all-round development of the child. Madame Montessori has done a great deal to the educational field as this training

in the first 6 years of childhood is very important. She has also indicated the methods to be followed in the development of the child in future education. If this system is strictly followed, we are sure that her soul will rest in peace,

Even the English lady Miss Helen Parkhurst (the founder of Dalton plan) and the American lady Mrs. O'Brien Harris (the founder of Howard plan) have sought inspiration from Madame Montessori.

At the age of 81 years, Dr. Maria Montessori had the same enthusiasm as a young lady. She was an ornament and a jewel in the field of children's education.

Higher Education in U. S. A.

The term "higher education" includes those educational programmes which require for admission the completion of approximately 12 years of previous schooling or its equivalent. The Office of Education lists 1,857 recognised institutions of higher education in the United States.

Higher education is carried on in the United States under a variety of institutional forms. Many different names are applied to institutions of this level. There is furthermore no consistency among institutions in the use of a given term, such as university or college, in official names.

The most common type of institution is the liberal arts college, which offers a four-year programme in the liberal arts leading to the Bachelor's degree. Junior colleges, a type of institution now rapidly increasing, offer the first two years of the liberal arts programme and usually offer courses that prepare for occupations requiring less than a four-year degree; many of these institutions are becoming known as community colleges and are adding extensive programmes of adult education and other services adapted closely to local needs and interests.

A university always has a liberal arts college as its core, and it also has a number of professional schools and a graduate school for advanced studies. Institutes of technology centre their attention on the technical subjects, such as engineering, but some of them offer programmes that become almost indistinguishable from those of a university. The term "technical institute" is used to identify an institution offering technical courses of less than degree length.

Institutions that have as their prime objective the preparation of teachers for elementary and secondary schools are generally known as teachers' colleges, though some of them still bear the older name of 'normal school'. Again, it must be emphasized that the official name borne by an institution often is not in line with the foregoing definitions.

In every state there is at least one institution known as a land-grant college or university. The name derives from the fact that these institutions were originally set up by the states on the basis of endowments of land granted by the federal government. The federal government continues to support these institutions by appropriations, though

they are also supported by state funds. By the terms of the original federal enactment, the institution must provide instruction in agriculture, mechanic arts and military tactics; other scientific and classical studies may be included.

For the most part the land-grant institutions are now almost indistinguishable from the state universities, except for the prominence given to agriculture, engineering, and home economics in their instructional programmes. In about half the states the state university is also the land-grant college: in the other states two or more separate institutions are maintained, one of which is the land-grant college.

Most of the 1,857 institutions of higher education in the United States are co-educational, accepting both men and women students. There are 227 that accept men only and 266 that accept women only. In most of the southern states separate institutions are maintained for white and Negro students. There are 103 institutions attended predominantly by Negroes. The institutions of higher education vary widely in size; some have fewer than 100 students, while a few range from 25,000 to almost 50,000 students.

CONTROL AND SUPPORT.

Institutions of higher education in the United States divide into two groups on the basis of their control. About one-third are controlled through governmental agencies, principally the states and municipalities. The federal government controls only seven institutions, all of which are maintained for the training of governmental personnel. The remaining two-thirds of the institutions are under non-governmental control. Many of the latter are related to some religious denomination; others are independent of any external organisation. Every institution, whether publicly or privately controlled, operates under the authority of a charter granted by the government of the state in which the institution is located, or in a few cases by the federal government.

The publicly-controlled institutions are supported to a large extent by appro-

priations of governmental funds by the legislative bodies in their respective jurisdictions. In a few states the privately controlled institutions also receive funds from governmental appropriations. All institutions, whether publicly or privately controlled, if operated on a non-profit-making basis, receive governmental subvention in the form of exemption from taxation.

The privately controlled institutions depend to a considerable extent on income from student fees for their support. Fees are also charged in the publicly-controlled institutions, but such fees for residents of the state are in general lower than those in the privately-controlled institutions. The privately-controlled institutions generally have some income from endowment; the amount of endowment held varies widely among institutions. Some of the publicly controlled institutions also have substantial endowment funds. Philanthropic gifts provide another important source of support both for current and for capital outlay, especially in the privately-controlled institutions. Many colleges and universities receive substantial support from the religious denominations with which they are affiliated.

The institutions of higher education in the United States are, for the most part, completely autonomous. Each one determines its own policies and procedures and has no authoritative organisational relationship to any other institution. In a few states the state-supported institutions of higher education are organised into a state system, but even in such cases the separate institutions retain most of the authority over their own programmes and procedures. The privately controlled institutions are not under the control of the state government with respect to their programmes and services.

The extent of institutional autonomy has made necessary the development of some arrangement for the control of quality. Accrediting associations have been organised for the purpose of certifying lists of institutions that meet announced standards of

quality. The accrediting agencies are voluntary associations without governmental connection. Some are organised for the evaluation of general institutional programmes, particularly in the field of the liberal arts. Others devote their attention to a single professional field, such as medicine, dentistry or law. Students may readily transfer from one accredited institution to another without loss of time. Recognition of degrees for many purposes is limited to those from institutions that have appropriate accreditation. A student is well advised to inquire critically about the accredited status of the institution that he plans to attend.

In addition to the voluntary accrediting associations, many of the states maintain accredited lists of institutions within their own borders. In some cases the accreditation is for general purposes, but more often it is for some specific programme such as preparation for teaching. Thus the granting of a certificate permitting one to teach in the schools of the state may be limited to those whose preparation has been taken in an institution of the state's official accredited list.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION

The legal authority for the control of an institution of higher education is lodged in a board, typically known as the board of trustees. The members of the controlling board are generally persons who are not on the staff of the institution, though in many cases the chief executive officer of the institution is also a member of its board. Members of the board serve without pay and consider their supervision of the institution a form of public service. Membership on the board of an institution of higher education is looked upon as a mark of distinction, an honour bestowed in recognition of one's qualities as a citizen.

The members of the board in publicly-controlled institutions usually receive their offices upon appointment from a governmental source, such as the Governor of the state. In privately-controlled institutions members of the board may be appointed by

the religious denomination with which affiliation is maintained. In many cases the members of the board of a privately-controlled institution elect their own successors. Provision is frequently made in privately-controlled institutions, and to some extent in publicly-controlled ones, for the alumni to participate in the selection of members of the board of trustees.

In practice the board of trustees delegates most of its authority over academic matters to its executive officers and the instructional staff. The board itself meets only a few times each year. The members of the academic staff are organised into a legislative body known as the faculty. The faculty has the authority to recommend on all matters pertaining to the curriculum and the instructional programme. Candidates for degrees must be recommended by the faculty, though the actual voting of the degrees usually requires formal action by the board of trustees.

The board of trustees selects a chief executive officer of the institution, who is usually known as the president, sometimes as chancellor. Unusual prestige is attached to this office. The president is the medium of communication between the trustees and the faculty. He is expected to guide and direct the general policies of the institution to see that funds for its support are provided and effectively used, and to look after the development of the programme of services.

To assist the president, subordinate officers are usually appointed in each of three or four major areas. (1) The business affairs of the institution are in charge of a business manager, who is frequently given a title of vice-president. In some institutions the business manager is coordinate with the president. (2) Supervision of all non-instructional services for students is usually assigned to a dean of students (sometimes called director of student personnel services) or two separate deans for men and for women students. (3) The instructional programme is directed by a dean of the college or deans of the several colleges or schools in a complex institution. In the latter case there is often a vice-president in charge of

academic affairs. (4) A fourth area of concern, public relations, is coming to be identified and the tendency now is to appoint a director of such services who ranks as a vice-president.

Within the academic programme the administrative organisation is set up in terms of schools or colleges. A university having several programmes of professional preparation will have each of them set up as a separate school or college, such as a college of engineering, a college of law, or a school of medicine. The terms "school" and "college" are used interchangeably in this connection, and there is no well-established distinction between them. The general programme of liberal arts is organised as a college. In some institutions the first two years of the liberal arts programme are devoted to general education of students, and are set up under a separate administration as a college of general studies. In a university the programme of advanced studies beyond the Bachelor's degree is set up in an organisation known as the graduate school.

Each school or college will have a dean as its chief executive officer. In each school or college the administrative subdivisions are organised around subject-matter fields, known as departments. Thus, a school of engineering may have departments of mechanical engineering, civil engineering, electrical engineering and chemical engineering. A college of liberal arts will have departments of history, mathematics, philosophy, English, etc. The executive officer of the department is known as its chairman or head.

CURRICULUM AND DEGREES.

Admission to an institution of higher education in the United States is based on the completion of a secondary school programme and usually occurs at the end of 12 years of previous schooling. Two plans are in effect for determining an applicant's fitness for entrance. A majority of the institutions now admit students solely on the basis of the record maintained in the secondary school. There is nearly always a

prescription by the institution of certain secondary-school subjects which must have been studied, but there are liberal opportunities for electives. The typical pattern of requirements sets up three units of English, two of mathematics, one of science, two or three of foreign language, and one or two of history and social studies, plus electives sufficient to make a total of 15 or 16 units. A unit is the work covered in a secondary-school class meeting five times a week for a school year of about 36 weeks. Privately-controlled institutions require for admission a level of performance in the secondary school somewhat above that of mere graduation. Thus, the student may not be admitted, unless he stands in the upper half or the upper two-thirds of his secondary-school class.

The second plan by which students are admitted is based on examinations. The College Entrance Examination Board, now a part of Educational Testing Service, has been established, through which institutions cooperate in giving such examinations. Some institutions give their own examinations for entrance. Most institutions provide for admission of students by examinations when, for some reason, they are not able to present the usual certificate of graduation from a secondary school.

The great majority of institutions will admit mature persons as special students without the formality of the usual admission procedures, provided the applicant can demonstrate capacity for the programme of studies he wishes to undertake. Such special students are usually required to regularise their entrance qualifications before they are permitted to become candidates for degrees.

In the field of the liberal arts the typical curriculum pattern has four elements. The first consists of certain required courses or areas of study which every student is expected to cover. The required courses may take from 20 to 25 percent of the total programme of the student. The second element consists of a major concentration in a single subject, such as economics or chemistry. The exact subject matter to be covered

in the subject is determined by the department. The major concentration usually amounts to 20 to 30 percent of the student's total programme. The third element is a minor, a concentration of perhaps 15 percent of the total programme in a single department, often related to the major subject. The fourth element consists of electives which the student may choose from any field of study offered in the institution.

In the professional fields the programmes of study are usually rather rigidly prescribed, and most of the student's time is devoted to subjects that are required in the particular curriculum he has chosen. At the graduate level the student normally concentrates all his study on his major subject, though often there is the possibility of choosing a related minor field.

Subject only to limitations expressed in its charter, each institution may grant whatever degrees it chooses. In one or two states approval by governmental authorities is required before an institution may offer a degree, but this is not typical.

DEGREES

The degrees commonly offered for the completion of the four-year programme of undergraduate studies are the Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science. The distinction between these two degrees is not sharp, though in general the Bachelor of Science tends to be limited to programmes in which the major subject is in the field of science. Some institutions grant only the Bachelor of Arts, regardless of the student's major subject. In many cases the Bachelor's degree is modified by the designation of a professional field or subject matter field for which the curriculum is organised. Thus an institution may offer the Bachelor of Music or the Bachelor of Arts in Music or the Bachelor of Science in Music. The variety of such degrees is endless.

Professional degrees vary in accordance with the field. In medicine the first professional degree is the Doctor of Medicine, which is usually taken after three years of medical instruction, admission to which

requires completion of at least three years of college-level study in the liberal arts and sciences. The Bachelor of Laws is the first professional degree in law. It is based on a three-year-programme of law study, admission to which requires two or three years of liberal arts courses at the college level. The engineering curriculum requires for admission only the completion of the secondary school, and at the end of four, or in some cases five, years of engineering study the first professional degree is granted. Space is lacking here for a complete description of the degree programmes in each of the professional fields.

Advanced degrees are usually administered though the graduate school at the university, though some of the professional schools may also administer their own advanced degrees. The first degree beyond the Bachelor's is the Master's. It usually requires completion of one year of additional study beyond the Bachelor's. The Doctor of Philosophy is the highest degree. It usually requires a minimum of three years of study beyond the Bachelor's, including the completion and publication of a substantial research project.

The variety of degrees and curriculums offered, and the extent of the elective courses permitted in the undergraduate programmes of students, have led to the development of an extraordinarily wide range of subject-matter offerings in colleges and universities in the United States. The number of subjects which are considered appropriate for study at the college level is almost incalculable. The number of different courses given at a typical college of liberal arts, offering only the Bachelor's degree, would be sufficient to occupy the attention of a single fulltime student for 30 years or more, if he completed all such courses. One can find somewhere a course on almost any conceivable topic he might wish to study.

The students in a college or university typically progress toward their degrees by passing individual courses. The student may carry from three to five or six such

courses each term. During the term, the instructor obtains records of each student's accomplishments in the course and at the end there is usually a final course examination. At the close of the term the instructor submits a report indicating the attainment of each student. The student's "credits" are then entered in his official record by an institutional official known as the registrar.

The record indicates the quality of the student's work, and the credit value of the course, the credits being based on the number of class meetings. Requirements for degrees are expressed in terms of such credits. These records are transferable from one institution to another. In some institution candidates for the Bachelor's degree are required to take a comprehensive examination in addition to the completion of the required credits, but this is not usual. For advanced degrees, however, some form of general comprehensive examination is usually required, though the students also customarily take a course examination at the end of each term.

STUDENT LIFE

Most institutions of higher education in the United States make provision for the housing of a substantial number of their students. Careful control is exercised over the non-institutional housing occupied by students, especially by women students. The facilities of institutional residence halls are provided at cost, but in general the institution does not expect to subsidise the provision of room and board. Almost all institutions make some provision for the feeding of students on the campus.

The health of students is a matter of concern at every institution. A medical staff is usually maintained to look after minor illness. Infirmarys are maintained to care for cases of student illness that require hospitalisation. The institution usually charges a general fee to all students in order to maintain its health services.

Much of the real education in a college or university goes on in what are known as

the extra-curricular activities. These are activities that are organised outside the regular classroom instruction. Every student is expected to enter into some of these activities, and a variety is provided so that everyone will find something to his taste. Activities such as dramatics, music, forensics and athletics are very popular. Athletic sports draw large crowds of spectators, both from the students of the institution and from others in the community. Social groups are maintained in wide variety. Special clubs are organised in almost every department of subject matter for students whose interests lie along these lines. The institution actively cultivates the development of extracurricular activities and takes special pains to see that students have full opportunity to participate.

Attendance at college or university in the United States generally involves considerable expense to the student or his family. There are many young people of high ability who cannot afford to pay the cost of college attendance. To meet this situation most institutions maintain certain forms of financial aid to students. Scholarships generally provide an amount equal to the cost of the students' tuition and other academic charges. Loan funds are available on generous terms. Fellowships are provided for graduate students, often in an amount sufficient to meet the full expenses of the student's year. Large numbers of students meet part of their expenses through employment, and institutions are active in providing opportunities for the student to earn his expenses.

At practically every institution the amount of funds available for scholarships and fellowships is far below that which is needed to meet student requests for aid. Such awards are made therefore on a competitive basis and only to the most promising applicants. Students from other countries must generally compete with all other students for such awards, although in some institutions a special grant is made for students from abroad.

The management of the varied phases of student life outside the classroom has

become a major enterprise in most colleges and universities. The development of so-called "student personnel services" has been one of the striking phenomena of higher education in the United States during the past three decades. Increasingly institutions are providing specially trained personnel to look after such functions.

ACADEMIC CALENDAR

The academic year in most institutions in the United States begins in September or early October and continues for approximately nine months until the following June. A holiday of one or two weeks is allowed over the Christmas and New Year period, and another vacation of a week or less is allowed in the spring, usually at Easter.

In most institutions the academic year is divided into two semesters of approximately 18 weeks each, the first ending late in January or early in February, and the second ending in June. In other institutions the year is divided into three terms, sometimes called quarters, of about 12 weeks each, the first ending at Christmas, the second in March and the third in June. Nearly all classes and courses are organised so that a complete unit of study may be finished within each semester or term.

An increasing number of institutions are maintaining instructional services through the summer months. These are organised as a fourth quarter of instruction in institutions on the quarter plan, or as a half semester, or sometimes two-thirds semester in institutions organised on the semester plan. The greater part of courses given in the summer session is designed for teachers and others who do not attend during the regular year. Many students of the regular year, however, attend during the summer in order to shorten the time for obtaining a degree. By attending every summer a

student can usually complete a four-year undergraduate curriculum in three calendar years.

THE TEACHER

Education: The number of years required for teacher preparation has been increasing rapidly during the present century. In 1910 the typical public elementary school teacher was a high-school graduate. Average preparation today for both elementary and high school teachers includes more than three years of college work beyond 12 years of elementary and secondary schooling. However, the preparation required varies greatly among the states, among school systems within the state, and among the different teaching positions. The average preparation for teachers in elementary schools is less than for teachers in high schools. For rural teachers it is less than for city teachers, and there are also marked differences in the average preparation of teachers in the several states, ranging from one year of college work to four years.

Two years of study above college graduation is the average preparation of faculty members in colleges and universities. Accredited colleges and universities require most newly appointed faculty members to have the doctor's degree, representing three or more years of university graduate work.

Certification: Every state in the union except Massachusetts makes provision for issuing one or more types of certificates for public-school teachers. Usually this is done through the state board of education, state department of education, or the superintendent of public instruction. More than two-thirds of the states do not require certificates of teachers in private or parochial schools, and the university or four-year college rarely, if ever, requires faculty members to have teacher's certificates.

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Manager,

THE EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

Number of Teachers, 1947-48

Type of School	Total	Men	Women
1	2	3	4
Continental United States.....	1,164,458	319,800	844,658
Elementary (including kindergarten).....	622,369	43,408	575,961
Public.....	554,939	39,655	515,284
Private.....	67,430	3,753	63,677
Secondary.....	352,418	140,454	211,964
Public.....	307,579	123,205	184,374
Private.....	44,839	17,249	27,590
Higher Education	174,204	130,698	43,506
Public.....	87,800	63,000	24,800
Private.....	86,404	67,698	18,706
Residential schools for exceptional children, public and private.....	5,919	1,148	4,771
Private commercial schools.....	7,875	3,537	4,338
Federal schools for Indians.....	1,673	555	1,118

No two states have exactly the same certification requirements. These vary with the subjects or fields for which teachers are certificated, with the duration of the life of the certificate, and with other factors. Two states accept less than a year of college work above four years of high-school work as the minimum scholastic requirement for elementary school teachers, while 17 states require four years of college work. Most states require four years of college preparation as a minimum for teaching in high school. A few states will permit a teacher with two years of college preparation to teach in high school. Four states now require five years of college preparation,

LIX-4-2

Scholastic requirements for certificates are changing rapidly, and almost invariably higher standards are demanded for both elementary and secondary schools. Furthermore, employing officers frequently demand higher requirements than the minimum certification requirements made by the states.

The period for which different types of teacher's certificates are valid range from one year to life. There is a growing tendency to issue probationary or conditional certificates renewable only after additional preparation. On the average, at least one teacher in every four annually continues

his education while in service by attending summer schools by enrolling in extension classes, or by similar means:

Certificates may be issued for teaching at certain levels for single subjects or fields of work, or for a combination of subjects or fields. A specialized certificate is usually issued for each specific subject, level, or field that demands extensive or prolonged preparation.

Strictly professional subjects, such as student teaching and educational psychology, are required for the higher grade certificates. Usually the requirement in professional education is higher for elementary than for secondary-school teachers. For high-school teachers, the strictly professional requirements usually amount to the equivalent of half a year's work.

Salaries: Salaries of teachers and administrators vary greatly from state to state and community to community, although the variations are less now than a decade ago. Of the 48 states 28 have minimum salary laws requiring school districts to pay a specified minimum salary to teachers with standard qualifications. Most of these laws require the payment of \$1,800 to \$2,400 per year to beginning teachers, whether elementary or secondary-school teachers, who hold a Bachelor's degree. Such teachers with 10 or more years of experience in these states usually receive \$3,200 to \$4,000 per year. Many of the larger schools pay considerably higher beginning and maximum salaries to persons holding Bachelor's degrees. Those with Master's degree usually get from \$200 to \$400 per year more than the teacher with a Bachelor's degree. In 1950-51 the average salary paid to public-school teachers in the entire United States was \$2,980. Superintendents of large city schools and colleges and university presidents receive from \$10,000 to \$25,000 per year. College faculty members receive more than public-school teachers, but less than superintendents or presidents.

Tenure: The tenure of teachers varies with their salaries, amount of preparation, working conditions and other factors. Tenure is shortest in the rural schools and longest in city school systems. Teachers in rural schools tend to move to towns and cities, where salaries and working conditions are better than in rural schools. For a number of years, tenure has been steadily increasing and now averages between 10 and 15 years.


In all the states, employment of teachers is the function of local school officers. When not otherwise set by state law, the length of term for employment is almost wholly within the power of local school officials.

Permanent tenure after a probationary period, continuing contracts, contracts for more than one year, and similar arrangements are variously prescribed or authorized among the states.

All the states now have legal provisions for state-wide teacher-retirement systems. A system of this sort provides a pension for a teacher who retires after a specified length of service.

TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS

Most of the large and distinctive groups of workers in education have professional organisations. The largest is the National Education Association, which has a membership of 453,797. Departments and affiliated organisations of this association include many specialised groups of teachers, supervisors and administrators, most of whom are employees in public schools. Hundreds of other national, regional, state, and local organisations also contribute to the opportunities of teachers in public and in private schools to study and improve their instructional practices and otherwise to advance their professional interests. The American Federation of Teachers is organised as a labour union and is affiliated with the American Federation of Labour.


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"READER II (131 pages) has lessons on a variety of subjects—stories, poems, dialogues, descriptions and talks on popular subjects written (except the poems) by the author. Short notes for help in understanding the subject matter and questions on the subject matter are found at the end of each lesson.

"READERS III, IV and V are on the same model. The lessons are on different subjects suitable for pupils in Forms II or III to Form V.

 "A systematic use of these readers will help pupils to grasp the fundamentals of English usage.

"Mr. Martin's name is a GUARANTEE FOR THOROUGHNESS, and as usual Messrs. Cooper have brought out a NEW and BRILLIANT series of Readers. It is hoped they will have the popularity they so richly deserve."—*The Educational Review, Madras* (March-April, 1938).

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The Christian Literature Society for India, Park-Town, Madras.

Social Adult Education Through Service Leagues

BY SRI S. JAGANNADHAN, *Teachers' College, Saidapet, (Retd.)*

(Continued from page 44)

CONTINUATION CLASSES AND LIBRARY SERVICE

It is a fact that at present no graded books have been brought out precisely for adult first reading and continuation reading. Notwithstanding efforts made in this direction, we will do well to give these people some books on health, agriculture, history, civics, geography, co-operation, etc., written for school children, but graded in style, so that the matter will add to their general knowledge, as they also read the language in books. Story-books should be had in plenty for these people to read and enjoy. Stories written for young and old in magazines and weeklies in the language of the pupils, may be cut out from these and bound for extra-reading. Some gifts from publishers will also help in the formation of a library, which is indispensable for continuation classes.

A local vernacular newspaper and some easy magazines of interest to the people will also go a long way in offering inducements for their reading habit. As books on ballads, folklore, riddles and proverbs will also interest a few, books on these would be a good addition. Books on travel and biography also provide interesting reading. It is the taste of the readers that should suggest to us the nature of books to be purchased. It may be of interest to mention here that four years of good experience were also gained by instituting a travelling library service. That has its own advantages and difficulties. A separate organisation can, however, run that service to the benefit of the learner. As people realise the value of reading as a help for self-advancement, as the readers increase and get distributed in a larger area with the thirst in reading, this service is sure to be of advantage to the people.

MATHEMATICS IN ADULT EDUCATION

No matter whether one is a literate, illiterate or semi-literate, one has to have some elementary knowledge of arithmetic to carry on ones' everyday life—to receive wages, to calculate the prices of articles bought and to know the respective weights and measures. A knowledge of these is indispensable. As teachers of these men, we are concerned with the following four problems.

(a) The mathematics of the common people indispensable in everyday life activities, starting from food to leisure time activities with due regard to local nomenclature and use of coins, weight and measures: (b) The mathematical methods unconnected with mathematics in books, but connected with life outside school: (c) The mathematics of the present day life, not in the know of the population and of which a knowledge is required for carrying on day to day life—weights and measures in modern life, reading time from clocks, railway timetables, reading a local calendar, etc.: and (d) The mathematics of the special avocations as weaving, carpentry, masonry, pottery, smithy, etc. Thus we proceed from what is known to these people to what they may need for their domestic and vocational life. Indigenous games involving a knowledge of arithmetical calculations may be revived and adapted and be made a feature of daily life.

YEARNING FOR THE LEARNING OF OTHER LANGUAGES

It is interesting to find that here and there are good many people who having a knowledge of their mother-tongue express their desire to learn and write English and sometimes Hindi. These depend upon the time and free will of the workers and the learners. Perhaps in many places there

are special classes for coaching men in these languages. But the primary purpose of Adult Literacy must never be lost sight of.

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

Literacy and General Knowledge go together in this sphere of Social and Adult Education. Literacy is a tool and the learning of General Knowledge is the essential and attractive part of the scheme. Visual and pictorial methods of education play a great part in inducing people to come to these centres. Once a week, the whole assembly of these learners is treated to talks, discourses and demonstrations in General Knowledge. It would be a welcome feature, if something to eat is distributed to the visitors at the end of these talks (some fruit or some preparation of Bengal or green grams or peas.) The subjects for General Knowledge cover a very wide field and have a varied character ranging from personal health, food, history, geography, civics, knowledge, science in everyday life, agriculture, making and manufacture, leisure-time crafts, stories and biographies, travels too numerous to mention. To ascertain the needs of people in this respect, would be also a good procedure. Daily reading of newspaper with reference to places in a map will be a good way of diffusing General Knowledge. Workers must endeavour to be in possession of current information regarding these by previous reading from books and getting first hand knowledge from persons who are specialists in the above branches of knowledge.

AIDS TO VISUAL EDUCATION

As the knowledge is to be conveyed to common people, workers will do well to use some aids for Visual Education from the following list.

1. Educational Cinemas,
2. Films on Health,
3. Films on Physiology,
4. Magic Lantern slides,
5. Stereographs,
6. Models (Physiology)
7. Museum,

8. Charts (Food, Vitamins)
9. Posters (Railway)
10. Maps.
11. Newspaper Pictures.
12. Demonstrations,
13. Experiments.
14. Exhibitions.
15. Excursions.
16. Pictures.
17. Radio Talks, News and Music,

CO-OPERATE WITH OTHER AGENCIES

One sure way of doing the above work is to work in co-operation with the various departments engaged in the propagation of essential knowledge of primary interest to the masses without the least spirit of conflict or competition.

1. Education Department.
2. Co-operative Department.
3. Health Department,
4. Agricultural Department.
5. Veterinary Department.
6. Library Association.
7. S. P. C. A. Association.
8. U. S. A. Information Services.
9. British Information Services.
10. Sevak Sangh.
11. Ramakrishna Mission.
12. Harijan Welfare Leagues.
13. Servants of India Society.
14. Humanitarian League.

ESSENTIAL NEEDS FOR PROPAGANDA

1. Struggle for Freedom and Freedom's Success,
2. A true Citizen (practising the dharma of life as a pupil as a householder, as a member of a profession, trade or calling, and as a citizen of a great country).
3. Homogeneity of Indian life.
4. Leisure-time occupation.
5. Constructive programme—a characteristic feature in Mahatmaji's life.
6. Bringing up children.

I would even welcome the publication of small booklets by local associations on the

above subjects with the sole object of bringing people together to feel as one, to work as one and to live as one. The appearance in the period of transition of suspicion, jealousy and hatred must vanish and the traditional toleration, trust and love must permeate the entire society and the whole life of the nation. Dramas and dialogues on these would also have a forceful appeal. I remember how once children enacted a play called "Queue Durbar" showing the value of the queue system in all public places and institutions. The benedictory saying at the end of our domestic function "Let all people on earth be happy" (Sarve janaah sukhino bhavantu) must be our motto in our actions and dreams.

TRAINING OF WORKERS

With the help of tried and experienced workers in the field the members of the league will do well to organise a short and intensive course of training for themselves and their co-workers on the various aspects of Social Education and adult literacy. Apart from theory in methods of literacy and methods of approach to adult mind, the members must know the practical aspect of the preparation of reading charts, outline maps, preparation of materials for propaganda and diffusion of General Knowledge, preparation of aids to Visual and Pictorial Education and posters, making up of short lessons and books for continuation classes, organisation of games, etc. Visits to schools run on ideal lines would add interest and reality to the work. Not only will they prepare these talks, but they will also deliver these talks in a simple language understandable by the village folk.

A GREAT ADVENTURE

This real adventure in Education has been going on for the last 25 years at the Saidapet Teachers' College in a most unostentatious way. All the facts enumerated here are borne out by actual experience in the course of this long experience. This kind of Mass Education or Social Education must go on in spite of the up-hill work it involves. It is certainly a long race of obstacles and hurdles, but patient and per-

sistent, persevering work will carry the worker to the goal. Even failures at the beginning must be considered as stepping stones to success. The organiser will also carefully avoid things of a controversial type from his talks and readings. I give below all the different points that should be in the purview of the organisers and workers, and I am sure that each item requires a little thought, and the worker has to follow these according to his own capacity, opportunity, time and good will of this co-workers. Public money must be considered very sacred.

In this respect the organiser must win the confidence of the learners by clean hands, spending the little he gets to utmost benefit of the school and maintaining clear and correct accounts. The receipts so far have been by way of donations in kind and coin, monthly subscriptions, proceeds from Variety Entertainments, teaching grants for library and prizes and so on. The students under training in the various sections in the College do voluntary service in teaching for a period of two months. Whole hearted identification with this kind of service will give more and more strength to stand up against even disrupting forces and take us on step by step.

I. Daily Routine

1. Wash hands and feet.
2. Look into books, pictures, maps and posters. Play number-boards, or spin with *takli*.
3. Prayer.
4. Newspaper reading and short story.
5. Talks (in the world of progress in pictures). Special Information.
6. Class teaching in groups.
7. Attendance, Absentees and Announcements.

II. Other Class Activities

1. Story-reading.
2. Games, sports.
3. Treats.
4. Class-library.
5. Weekly lectures.
6. Discussion classes.

III. Various Side Activities

1. Mutual Visits.
2. Variety Entertainment.
3. Economic survey.
4. Co-operative Society.
5. Savings Bank.
6. Travelling Library Service.
7. Temple Service: Mottos: Regulating devotees at entrance.
8. Personal help.

IV. Literacy Work

1. Manuscript Magazine.
2. Picture Books.
3. Reading cards, charts and sheets.
4. Newspaper cuttings.
5. Leisure-time reading books.
6. Visual Education Aids.

V. Prizes given for.

1. Attendance.
2. Completing a primer.
3. Class attainments.
4. Sports.
5. Class library.
6. Leisure-time hand-work.
7. Service.
8. Histrionic talents.

VI. Thoughts for the future.

1. Junior class for boys below 14.
2. Bhajana Clubs into reading centres.
3. Temple library service.
4. Culture Club and Tearing lectures.
5. Recreation and reading centres.
6. Bureau of Service.
7. Literacy tests and certificates.
8. Effort to get educated at least one member in each of the avocations from among the working class community.

The spirit of service with which this adventure of education will have to be undertaken will be revealed in the following sentences. Any bit of service is attended to by a certain amount of suffering and sacrifice. May God grant us strength of body and mind in pursuing this great and tremendous work is my humble prayer to Him.

Do all the good you can,
By all the means you can,
In all the ways you can,
In all the places you can,
At all the times you can,
To all the people you can,
As long as ever you can.

The Discipline in our Educational Institutions

BY SRI M. B. NARASIMHA IYENGAR M. SC., BANGALORE

Discipline is lacking in most of our educational institutions in the present day. In the good old days students held the teacher in great reverence and the teacher had a great regard for his pupils. All this is changed now. Many things have contributed to this ugly state of affairs.

Firstly the teacher has no choice in the selection of his students. To each educational institution there is attached a Committee, often called by the name of the Advisory Committee, wherein the important communities of the locality are represented. It is this committee that makes the selection; and merit is not considered by them at all. The teacher is only in a minority in this committee. Each member of this

committee is keen on admitting the members of his own community. The teacher's role is only to be an unhappy spectator.

In most of the cases, proper men are not selected as teachers. Teachers are asked to handle subjects that they have never studied in all their lives. The only criterion, it appears, is that a graduate is supposed to be versed in all the different subjects to be taught. I have known of an instance, then a graduate in history was asked to coach up students in mathematics for the S. S. L. C. Examination. In many cases the teachers themselves do not know the elementary principles of the subjects they are asked to teach. How could they, then, impart knowledge to the student?

In some institutions, the students are asked to write down the name of the community to which he or she belongs in the answer paper. The examiner should correct the papers keeping in view the caste of the examinees. Merit is no consideration at all in marking the paper. Each member of the committee is very particular about the results of the members of his community. He sets up agitation in case a student of his community fails in the examination. The poor teacher will be punished for this so called insolence. The result is that the

teacher, who has no other means of livelihood, has to give the minimum number of marks necessary for a pass to many students irrespective of their merits.

The teacher cannot take any disciplinary action against students. Again the Advisory Committee comes to their rescue. In any event, it is the teacher who suffers at the hands of the committee, if he punishes any of his students.

Hence the teacher is a powerless victim of the times. He is there only, because he has no other means to sustain himself.

Mining Education at Queensland

INDIA's Five year Plan lays stress on the importance of mining and mineral development, and the President, in recent weeks, has emphasised the need for more trained mining engineers.

This type of training is one of the facilities available to India in Australia, under the Technical Co-operation Scheme; and the acquisition of a full scale mining property by the University of Queensland offers a unique opportunity for the gaining of practical experience, under actual mine-working conditions, which is equalled only by the Royal School of Mines and the Colorado School of Mines in the U. S. A.

The University of Queensland Training Mine is situated within 6 miles of the centre of Brisbane and only 3 miles from the new University. A long term lease over the property has been obtained and the Mines Department has proclaimed the area as one over which no further mining applications will be considered. The University is thus assured of long term exclusive rights over the property. The lease includes both underground and surface rights including existing building.

The property covers some eight acres, including the former holdings of two companies, where silver-lead ore was mined and a zinc-bearing ore-body was also located. Production operations commenced in 1919 and ceased in 1928. During this period,

1695.3 tons of lead valued at Rs. 6,26,650 and 227.316 ozs of silver valued at Rs. 3,80,512 were produced. No production of zinc is recorded.

The mine workings include an open-cut (some 90ft. deep), two shafts (one 3-compartment, 300 ft. deep and one 2-compartment, 150 ft. deep), two adits, with drives, cross cuts winzes and rises, which together extend for some 2400 ft. Rehabilitation of the workings was commenced in the latter half of 1951 and, by unanimous decision of students and staff, has been carried out entirely by student effort during weekends and holidays. For this reason, complete rehabilitation will take some time, but, in the process, a valuable student tradition will have been created and established.

The mine will be used to train mining engineering students in surface and mine surveying, mine ventilation, sampling the estimation of ore reserves, geology applied to mining, and allied subjects. Particular attention will be paid to critical analyses of the factors involved, the performance of machines used, operating costs and the possible application of alternative methods. In other words, the mine will be run as an underground laboratory, testing station and training centre. As such it will also be available to students in other University Departments. Underground surveying as a subject is included, for example, in the

Civil Engineering, the Surveying and the Applied Geology courses. Students in Applied Geology will be able to participate also in sampling, ore reserve calculations and geology applied to mining. The Electrical and Mechanical Engineering Departments will also find application for certain aspects of their work to underground installations and conditions.

The Department of Mining Engineering in the University of Queensland was formed only in 1950 and was expanded to become the Department of Mining and Metallurgical Engineering in 1952. The acquisition of the University Training Mine so early in its history will assist greatly in its establishment, as a means of supplementing lecture/laboratory courses. Seldom is

it possible to obtain a mining property close enough to a University to serve such desirable purposes as outlined in the foregoing. The Royal School of Mines and the Colorado School of Mines mentioned earlier are two prominent mining schools which have such facilities available to their students (although not so conveniently situated), but until the University of Queensland took this step, no Australian University possessed such facilities. The University of Queensland is thus in a unique position among Australian Universities. It is considered that the University Training Mine will assist in inculcating a realistic approach to mining and its various problems by research, testwork and practice under actual mining conditions, and thus represents a significant forward step in higher mining education.

The XLIII Madras State Educational Conference, Mangalore.

PROGRAMME

Wednesday, 6th May, 1953—

- 7 p. m. Inaugural session of the Conference:
 Welcome Address.
 Inaugural Address.
 Presidential Address.
 Opening of the Exhibition.
 10. p. m. Entertainment.

Thursday 7th May, 1953—

- 8 a. m. to 10 a. m. Administration, Organisation and Teachers' Education Sectional Conference.
 2 p. m. to 4 p. m. Basic and Primary Education Sectional Conference.
 4 p. m. Excursion within Mangalore.
 6-30 p. m. to 7-30 Sabhesan Memorial Lecture.
 8-30 p. m. Subjects Committee Meeting.
 9 p. m. Entertainment.

Friday, 8th May, 1953—

- 9-30 a. m. to 11-30 a. m. Secondary and Technical Education Sectional Conference.
 2 p. m. to 4 p. m. University Education Sectional Conference.
 4-30 p. m. Excursion within Mangalore.
 7 p. m. General Session—Resolutions.
 9 p. m. Meeting of workers.

Saturday, 9th May, 1953—

- 8 p. m. Concluding Session.

DRAFT RESOLUTIONS

1. This Conference reiterates its resolution of last year in respect of salaries, leave rules and old-age provision, including Provident Fund - cum - Insurance - cum - Pension with Gratuity and that it should be given immediate effect by Government.

2. This Conference requests that teachers of all cadres under all managements be given house rent allowance and dearness

allowance at rates applicable to employees of the Central Government.

3. This Conference, while welcoming the grant of medical relief concession to officers of the non-gazetted services, requests that the concession be extended to all categories of teachers, clerks and servants, working in aided institutions including colleges.

Further, this Conference, while thanking the Government for extending the educational fee concession to the children of permanent clerks in educational institutions, requests that this concession be extended to college teachers and to servants attached to educational institutions also.

4. This Conference requests that the age of retirement of all grades of teachers under all managements including Government be fixed at 65.

5. This Conference is of the view that the Government should thoroughly examine the existing policy in respect of primary education with special reference to agency, finance, control and supervision.

6. This Conference expresses the view that in order to ensure continuity of policy

and ordered progress in education, a Board of Education should be constituted with statutory powers for the planning and organisation of education.

7. While reiterating its opinion as expressed in previous Conferences that to secure educational efficiency the strength of a class or section should not exceed 30, this Conference requests Government not to allow, even as a temporary measure, the admission of more than 40 pupils per section. It further urges upon Government to revise its policy in respect of grants to buildings so as to give adequate aid to institutions.

8. This Conference urges that a Teachers' Council be constituted to lay down standards for recruitment to the Teaching Profession, to ensure the maintenance of professional standards amongst teachers and to examine all cases of professional misconduct.

NOTE:—Delegates intending to move amendments are requested to send the same to the Secretary, 43rd Madras State Educational Conference, Canara High School, Mangalore, to reach him on or before 3rd May, 1953.

Editorial

Addressing recently the executive of the All-Ceylon Union of Teachers, Col. Donald Portway, Master of St. Catherine's College, Cambridge, gave an interesting account of the working of the Butler Act in England. He points out that the only striking innovation in the Act, which reorganised education in England after the World War II, is that throughout the Act there runs the conception that education should provide both for youth and maturity. "It is also implicit in the Act that the fundamental principle both in education for life and in all community planning must be cultural."

Col. Portway's analysis is primarily interesting because of certain weaknesses which he has noticed in the working of

'what is by far the most idealistic Education Act that has ever reached the Statute Book'. The idealistic assumption that all children react to kindness has resulted in a breakdown of discipline, as teachers are allowed only to persuade by mild exhortations. The attempt to extend whole-time education to 16 years seems to assume that all children are equal in aptitude and ability and does not give adequate recognition to the fact that many children want to start earning at 14. The Butler Act, Col. Portway goes on to observe, assumes that it is dealing with an actual welfare state.

These 'weaknesses' also form part of the educational plans in our country. There is a tendency to indulge in idealism without taking into account practical realities. If, as Col. Portway hints, even England is not a welfare state but only a country striving

to be one, how much more is that true of our country! Again, in our plans, owing to historical reasons, the equality aspect of democracy tends to be stressed at the expense of the individuality aspect. In the result, we are faced not merely with a breakdown of discipline, but also with a catastrophic lowering of standards throughout the country at all levels of education.

Yet another weakness pointed out by Col. Portway in the educational set-up in England is that salaries of teachers 'are notoriously and scandalously low'. This is a matter on which India is decidedly much worse off than England. The low status of the teacher and his shabby emoluments were part of the English tradition imposed on us during the British rule. If talent and ambition are driven away, as they are, from education as a career, we are bound to enter on a period of continually accelerating fall in standards.

Thus the English experience seems to be full of valuable lessons for us.

Sri S.C. Roy, in the *Educational Quarterly* published by the Government of India, refers to the post-war reconstruction in French education under a plan prepared by a committee presided over by Paul Langevin. While the Langevin Report recognises the right of every child to education, the French system provides for two types of school, one for those who do not propose to go beyond the primary stage and the other for those desiring a longer course. The ideal is to educate children from 6 to 18 years. Some sort of selection at the secondary stage seems to have been found necessary. A system of entrance examination at the age of 11 has been introduced. Also there are *classes nouvelles*, functioning as laboratories where the children can be tested for abilities and tastes and aptitudes. Between the ages of 11 and 14 there is a period of orientation, where a wide variety of optional subjects help to reveal the temperament and talents of the students.

The problem of bifurcation at the secondary stage confronts us in India also. And we would do well to take note of the experience of other countries faced with a similar situation,

Sri V. B. Karnik describes two experiments in the project method of Adult Education among the Maoris of New Zealand among the Maoris in the March issue of the *Indian Journal of Adult Education*.

A saw mill project and a carved meeting house project seem to have led to remarkable results. The first originated at a week-end adult education school where the adults were discussing as to what should be done with the timber on one of the blocks of land belonging to the Maoris. There was a suggestion that a saw mill should be established by the Maoris to use the timber on Maori lands, instead of selling the cutting rights to white millers, as was usually done. The tutor in charge of the week-end class decided to organise an adult education programme round this theme. Lectures and discussions were arranged about every step in organising a saw mill. The community as a whole was induced to participate. The programme included week-end classes, talks and lectures by technical experts, distribution of data on milling and visits by select groups to timber country and timber mills. The results of the project were gratifying. A saw mill was established with capital raised from Maori sources. Their leaders got trained in business methods and their labourers got jobs.

As a result of some adult education classes on the tribal history and culture of the Maoris, young people became enthusiastic about building a meeting house with carvings worthy of the people's art. The resources of the tribe were fully used for the purpose. The whole tribe attended meetings and discussions and learnt about the culture and historical meaning of the meeting house and the significance of the symbolism in the carvings. Actual carving lessons were also given. This programme touched the heart of the tribe and has given them a new vision.

Adult education projects on similar lines are needed to put new life into our village communities.

One of the biggest problems facing the Government in this country is the expansion of primary education

**Expansion of
Primary
Education**

on the scale required by situation in which we find ourselves. With more than 80% of the people illiterate,

the task facing us is really colossal. Optimistic views about solving this problem are disappearing under the impact of stubborn practical difficulties. In a recent issue the *Calcutta Review* points out that these difficulties were not foreseen by our political leaders before independence. The question of finance is all important. And we have now reached a position where our state governments find themselves unable to spare the money needed for quick progress towards universal education. Even the Five Year Plan has been able to allot only a very small sum for being spent on education. *The Calcutta Review* dismisses the plan for conscripting teachers as no solution for the financial difficulties involved. It declares: "In fact what we may expect at the present time is not any revolutionary progress but only a gradual expansion of literacy and primary education."

This may seem a disheartening conclusion. But it underlines the necessity for radically examining our facile assumption that somehow or other we can carry through an expansion of primary education on the lines familiar to us in Western countries. If hard facts stand in the way, then there is need for thinking about other methods of achieving our objectives. It is in this connection that the proposal of our state government to have half-time classes for students of primary schools becomes significant. Dr. L. Mukerji writing in *Education* quotes the *Teachers' World* as saying: "Half-time education was anathema to teachers and other educationists at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th. But half-time at the right time has much to commend it." It instances the county college for those over the age of compulsory attendance and also a nursery school at Greenwich where children will attend half-time. Dr. Mukerji himself agrees with half-time attendance in primary classes.

Fuller details about our Government plans are needed before their implications can be grasped. In the meanwhile, they suggest a plea on the part of the Government not to allow too great a disparity between plans and resources.

NOTICE

Contributions: The Editor solicits contributions on all subjects of educational interest. Articles generally need not be made longer than 2000 to 2500 words. They should be legibly written, preferably typewritten so as to permit the incorporation of editorial revisions and instructions to the press. Acceptance and publication of an article do not necessarily imply that the Editor endorses the views expressed therein. Stamps should accompany the manuscript, if the writer wishes it returned in case of non-acceptance. The Editor cannot in any case accept any responsibility for the return of any manuscript submitted.

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